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ABSTRACT

This bibliography contains annotations of publications relating to theory, research, and practice in early reading (reading prior to the time a child begins attending school). The 142 annotations are listed under the following headings: comprehensive studies, theoretical issues, pedagogical issues, empirical issues, reviews, and bibliographies. (RL)

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EARLY READING

An Annotated Bibliography

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1980

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Introduction

In recent years, attention in reading research has focused increasingly on the causes for success rather than investigating primarily the causes of failure. The work of Kenneth Goodman, Frank Smith, and David Rumelhart, among others, has shown that substantial benefits can be derived from the attempt to characterize the strategies of the mature reader. Work of this type has led to great insight into the psychology of reading and has provided a basis for sound pedagogical decisions.

But characterizing the mature reader illuminates only part of the picture of success in reading. Reading is a developmental process, and in order to understand more completely the notion of competence in reading, it is necessary to examine the phenomenon of success at various points along the continuum. Thus, determining how the beginning reader and the developing reader make meaning from text is every bit as important as the corresponding research with mature readers.

In this regard, Margaret Clark's recent publication *Young Fluent Readers* has again brought to the forefront the benefits of studying early readers, those children who learn to read prior to attending school. Such children seem to find learning to read relatively easy and carry out the task fluently. By examining their strategies and the reasons for their success, we stand to gain considerable insight into what it is that promotes the growth of reading behavior.

Over the years a sizable body of literature on early reading has developed. As would be expected, educators and researchers involved in the area of early reading have found certain issues to be of central concern. This bibliography compiles annotations of publications relating to each of these issues. In this way it attempts to provide for the reader an overview of theory, research, and practice in early reading.

The term *early reading* has been used over the years in a variety of ways. Many writers apply it to children's initial period of learning to read. Used in this sense, the term means beginning reading. However, for purposes of this bibliography, early reading is defined in

a more specific manner, that is, as reading prior to the time a child begins attending the institution known as school. The intent is to focus on learning to read at home and on the issue of reading in the American kindergarten (which has a long tradition of being considered an informal introduction to schooling). There is necessarily some overlap with other topics, notably reading readiness. But these other areas are considered only insofar as they apply to early reading.

For organizational purposes, the annotations have been separated into the following six categories: Comprehensive Studies of Early Reading, Theoretical Issues in Early Reading, Pedagogical Issues in Early Reading, Empirical Issues in Early Reading, Reviews of Early Reading, and Bibliographies of Early Reading. These categories were chosen because they seemed to represent topics of central concern in the area of early reading. The divisions between the categories are by no means hard and fast, and the decision to place a reference in a particular category reflects only the issue which seemed to be emphasized most in the reference. Indeed, many articles are concerned with more than one of these issues, and cross-references have been provided at the end of each section to help the reader note these overlaps.

The references themselves have been brought together from a variety of sources and from a number of countries; they represent all of the published and unpublished items from 1908 to the present which could be located and obtained. It is hoped that this compilation will help meet the needs of individuals studying the topic of early reading.

I wish to thank the International Reading Association, the reviewers of the manuscript, and Romayne McElhaney, Faye Branca, and Lloyd Kline for their help with this project. In addition, I am extremely grateful to Louis Jeffries for his invaluable assistance on the bibliography and for his patience and friendship.

WHT

Comprehensive Studies of Early Reading

The term *comprehensive study* has been reserved for those few studies involving in-depth research into the various aspects of early reading. These studies have investigated both early readers and early reading. Cognitive, perceptual, linguistic, social, and personal characteristics of the readers as well as home, family, and experiential background have been examined. The studies provide both qualitative and quantitative information about early reading. The books by Durkin and Clark, included here, are publications of major importance in early reading.

1. Clark, M.M. "Language and Reading—A Study of Early Reading," in W. Latham (Ed.), *The Road to Effective Reading*, Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Study Conference of the UKRA. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1973, 17-26.

   Clark reports the results on the reading, spelling, and arithmetic skills of 32 early readers from Glasgow, Scotland, whom she studied intensively from 1969 to the time of publication. The results and conclusions presented in this paper are detailed in her book, *Young Fluent Readers*.

2. Clark, M.M. *Young Fluent Readers*. London: Heinemann Educational Books, 1976.

   Over a period of years, the author observed 32 early readers for IQ, language abilities, auditory discrimination, preschool experiences, and home backgrounds. Results showed that the early readers ranged in intelligence from average to superior and as a group were above average. The subjects came from a wide range of home backgrounds, but common factors were that the parents found their families stimulating and that most of the early readers had "an interested adult who talked and listened to them" and who read to them at a stage when they were interested in reading. Few parents consciously attempted to teach their children to read. Clark concludes that findings are similar to and amplify those of Durkin (1966), King and Friesen (1972), Krippner (1953), and Torrey (1969). She also maintains that the

library played a striking role in the development of these 32 early readers and that the frequent reading and rereading of familiar texts helped the children become sensitized to written language and provided them with a means of understanding the act of reading.

3. Durkin, D. "A Study of Children Who Learned to Read Prior to First Grade," *California Journal of Educational Research*, 10 (1959), 109-113.
Durkin reports on the first year of her California Study of 49 early readers. Major conclusions are summarized in *Children Who Read Early* (Durkin, 1966).

4. Durkin, D. "Children Who Learned to Read at Home," *Elementary School Journal*, 62 (1961), 14-18.
Article reports on the first two years of Durkin's California study of 49 early readers. For a summary see Durkin, 1966.

5. Durkin, D. "Children Who Read before Grade One," *Reading Teacher*, 14 (1961), 163-166.
Briefly outlines the results of the first year of Durkin's California study and proposes three "emerging hypotheses": 1) Intelligence tests are seriously inadequate for identifying what it takes to learn to read, 2) particular personality characteristics are important to learning to read, and 3) children's perceptions of what it means to read affect their attitudes toward and achievement in reading.

6. Durkin, D. "Children Who Read before Grade One: A Second Study," *Elementary School Journal*, 64 (1963), 143-148.
Reports the first-year findings of Durkin's New York study of 30 early readers. Major conclusions are summarized in Durkin, 1966.

7. Durkin, D. "A Fifth Year Report on the Achievement of Early Readers," *Elementary School Journal*, 65 (1964), 76-80.
Presents the first five years of the author's California study of 49 early readers. A complete summary of the major conclusions can be found in Durkin, 1966.

8. Durkin, D. "Early Readers: Reflections after Six Years of Research," *Reading Teacher*, 18 (1964), 3-7.
Durkin comments upon some of the accidental and incidental things she noticed and learned from 1959 to 1964 in her California and New York studies of early readers. She notes that in 1964 the attitude toward teaching children to read early was generally more positive than it had been in the late 1950s. But she points to the degree of a "bandwagon" effect and stresses that the

decision to teach reading in a kindergarten situation should be based upon individuals and not on an everyone-or-no-one policy. Durkin also points out that over half of the preschool readers in her studies were interested in writing before they showed any interest in reading and recommends that early instruction in reading stress writing as well. Finally, she suggests a good deal of flexibility and informality when working with young children so their interests will be tapped and their attitudes will remain positive.

9. Durkin, D. *Children Who Read Early*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.

Describes Durkin's two major studies of early readers, the California Study (a six year study) and the New York City Study (conducted for three years). For each of the studies, Durkin defined as early readers beginning grade one children who 1) could identify at least 18 words from a list of 37, 2) obtained a raw score of at least 1 on a standardized reading test, and 3) had not received school instruction in reading. She reports on information about the intelligence, reading achievements, family backgrounds, preschool experiences, and personal characteristics of the early readers. In addition, she presents case studies of 5 early readers from the California study and 6 from the New York study. The major conclusions of the studies were:

1. Early readers as a group maintain their lead in reading achievement over nonearly readers of the same mental age.
2. An early start in reading does no academic injury to children; in fact, an early start has benefits in reading achievement. Furthermore, the value of an early start is especially great for children of low IQ.
3. Families of early readers are quite different. Parents of early readers show a greater willingness to help with reading; they respond to the children's questions about words and reading.
4. The early readers learned to read by what would be characterized as a language arts approach. Scribbling, drawing, and writing were important in early readers' learning to read; being read to created an interest in reading and led to questions about words.

See also entries numbered 36, 37, 70, 72, 113.

Theoretical Issues in Early Reading

This rather broad category is divided into four topics.

Can/should children learn to read early? If so, when?

10. Artley, A.S. "Reading in Kindergarten," in M.A. Dawson (Ed.), *Combining Research Results and Good Practice*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1966, 7-13.
By reviewing research, Artley establishes that some children should be taught to read in kindergarten, and then examines the nature and results of the several kindergarten programs which include reading and/or prereading instruction in their curricula. He concludes that kindergarten has a definite role to play in promoting reading.

11. Bacci, W. "Children Can Read in Kindergarten," *School Management*, 5 (1961), 120-122.
Author describes in very general terms the programs in the Carle Place, New York, schools which are posited on the belief that children are ready to read in kindergarten and which teach reading by a phonics approach. Bacci claims good results for the programs.

12. Beck, J. *How to Raise a Brighter Child: The Case for Early Learning*. New York: Trident Press, 1967.
Chapter 7 of this book is titled "Should You Teach Your Preschooler to Read?" In an anecdotal, chatty fashion Beck reviews the pros and cons of early reading and discusses various research/programs in the area (O.K. Moore, Durkin, Doman). She also describes the rationale/method of her essentially phonics oriented comic strip feature, designed to teach reading to young children, which ran in the *Chicago Tribune* for thirteen weeks during 1964.

13. Bettelheim, B. "The Danger of Teaching Your Baby to Read," *Ladies Home Journal*, 83 (1966), 38-40.
This article is in the form of a dialogue between Bettelheim and ten mothers. Bettelheim argues that teaching young children to read may result in the children's becoming isolated from parents

and peers rather than socialized. He maintains that the kindergarten cannot have both a social and an academic program and that the former is preferable. In many senses Bettelheim takes a narrow view of early reading, saying that reading is just a skill and *thinking* is what is really important.

14. Brzeinski, J.E. "Early Introduction to Reading," in J.A. Figurel (Ed.), *Reading and Inquiry*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965, 443-446.
Reviews the research of O.K. Moore, Dolores Durkin, and others, along with the Denver project results, all of which indicate that early instruction has beneficial effects in terms of subsequent performance in reading. Author also outlines the procedures of a highly structured, heavily phonics based early reading curriculum (similar to that used in the Denver project) meant for teachers and parents.

15. Brzeinski, J.E., and W. Howard. "Early Reading—How, Not When!" *Reading Teacher*, 25 (1971), 239-242.
The authors maintain that research on early reading (i.e., the Denver study) shows clearly that reading can be taught to young children. They argue that the focus of research must now shift to *how* teaching should be done. A coordinated effort involving a critical analysis and compilation of existing research data and a planned program for designing future research in early reading is called for.

16. Durkin, D. "Should the Very Young Be Taught to Read?" *NEA Journal*, 52 (1963), 20-24.
Durkin cites Sputnik, Bruner's *The Process of Education*, Montessori education, and her own California and New York studies as primary reasons for the focus on prefirst grade reading instruction. She argues that kindergarten programs should provide all children with *opportunities* to start learning to read; how each child responds to the opportunities will indicate readiness or lack of it. Durkin also suggests ways in which informal opportunities for reading might be provided in the classroom.

17. Durkin, D. "When Should Children Begin to Read?" in H.M. Robinson (Ed.), *Innovation and Change in Reading Instruction*, Sixty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1968, 30-71.
Provides a brief historical perspective on the question of when reading instruction in school should begin. Also, the concept of reading readiness and its measurement are discussed from an

historical point of view. Durkin maintains that kindergarten children are neither totally ready nor totally unready to read; instruction is a question of making reading-related activities appropriate to the children's levels of development. The latter half of the article focuses on, "When should a child begin to read?" Here Durkin reviews the traditional objections to and claims in support of preschool reading and finds truths and falsities on both sides. She concludes that the question of when to begin reading has no single, unequivocal answer and provides recommendations for preschool reading instruction.

18. Georgiady, N.P., L. Romano, and A. Baranowski. "To Read or Not to Read—in Kindergarten," *Elementary School Journal*, 65 (1965), 306-311.

This study sought to determine if children in a changing environment would mature more rapidly and, hence, be ready for earlier initial reading experiences. Each of four kindergarten classes (100 subjects, aged 5.9 to 6.3) was divided into four groups (experimental control x high IQ/low IQ). The experimental children in each class received help from the teacher in identifying words. The criterion measure at the end of the experiment was word recognition. The experimental group generally achieved significantly higher than the control group on the posttest.

19. Holmes, J.A. "When Should and Could Johnny Learn to Read?" in J.A. Figurel (Ed.), *Challenge and Experiment in Reading*. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1962, 237-241.

Holmes reviews some of the early literature on reading readiness/preschool reading and concludes that children can be taught to read before age six if a low teacher-student ratio is maintained. On the question of "Should young children be taught to read?" he maintains that the issues of "visual hygiene" and educational priorities must be taken into account. Holmes takes no firm stand one way or the other on the "should they" issue, saying only that "the advisability of doing so is another question" (p. 240).

20. Hoskisson, K. "Should Parents Teach Their Children to Read?" *Elementary English*, 51 (1974), 295-299.

Hoskisson reviews major language learning studies and establishes that the child learning language is a *constructor* of language who learns essentially by getting feedback in a communicative situation. He argues that learning to read can proceed in much the same manner, rather than by formal, systematic instruction and outlines an informal program

intended for parents who want to assist their preschool children's reading.

21. Hymes, J.L. "Early Reading Is Very Risky Business," in H.F. Clarizio, R.C. Craig, and W.A. Mehrens (Eds.), *Contemporary Issues in Educational Psychology*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1970, 135-139.

    Hymes argues that there is nothing wrong with helping preschool children to get ready to read or with letting those who are ready read. He maintains, however, that the current (1965) drive for early reading is still basically a formal workbook/textbook approach and that, for a number of reasons which are outlined, such an approach is wrong.

22. Hymes, J.L. "Teaching Reading to the Under-Six Age: A Child Development Point of View," in M.P. Douglass (Ed.), *Thirty-fourth Claremont Reading Conference Yearbook*. Claremont, California: Claremont Reading Conference, 1970, 79-83.

    Hymes maintains that it is nonsense to talk about teaching reading readiness as a special approach to prefirst grade children. "We either teach reading or we don't" (p. 79). He opts for teaching reading to the under-six age child provided several considerations are kept in mind. Reading must be taught in a way that 1) fits the child, 2) fits reading, and 3) fits the goals of general education. Each of these considerations is discussed in some detail.

23. Lynn, R. "Teaching Two Year Olds to Read," *Reading*, 4 (1970), 18-22.

    Lynn gives a brief account of teaching letters and words to his daughter between the ages of two and three and then addresses the questions, "Is early reading possible?" and "Is early reading useful?" To the former question he points out examples which show that early reading is possible and states that he feels the main difficulty for young children learning to read is one of concentration and attention span. On the question of the usefulness of early reading, Lynn doubts it has any longlasting effect, either good or bad, but fails to cite any evidence to support his case. Generally this article represents Lynn's subjective feelings about early reading.

24. Moskowitz, S. "Should We Teach Reading in the Kindergarten?" *Elementary English*, 42 (1965), 798-804.

    Moskowitz reviews the research of O.K. Moore, Dolores Durkin, Plessas and Oakes, Marjorie Sutton, and the Denver Project and

concludes it is clear that preschool children can learn to read. She cautions against teaching young children to read, however, maintaining there is little to gain but plenty to lose by pushing such children. The research she cites to support her contention for not hurrying children is mostly obscure, unreferenced work or poorly designed studies (e.g. Morphett and Washburn's "classic" reading readiness study). Overall, it is difficult to pin down her stance. She seems to take a hard line against prefirst grade instruction in reading but also supports instructing those children who are ready.

25. Ollila, L.O. "Pros and Cons of Teaching Reading to Four and Five Year Olds," in R.C. Aukerman (Ed.), *Some Persistent Questions on Beginning Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1972, 53-61.

Ollila maintains that questions for early reading should no longer include "can they?" (for they obviously can) but should concentrate on such things as "why should they?" "what are the benefits?" and "to whom should early instruction be given?" Author summarizes the arguments for and against early reading and, using research evidence, discusses effects of early reading and problems encountered in teaching reading in kindergarten. He argues that the pros and cons will not be resolved until more facts are found through research. The main conclusions, tentative in nature, are 1) early starters maintain an advantage in reading *if* adjusted instruction is provided; 2) attitudes of kindergartners toward reading are important in determining if instruction is to be given; 3) little is known about the effects of early reading on eyesight; and 4) early reading seems neither to create nor prevent reading disabilities, boredom, or school adjustment/psychological problems.

26. Pincus, M., and F. Morgenstern. "Should Children Be Taught to Read Earlier?" *Reading Teacher*, 18 (1964), 37-42.

Based largely on the results of Durkin's early work and to some extent Bruner's notions in *The Process of Education*, the authors conclude that some children should be taught to read before grade one and that kindergarten and grade one curricula should adjust for early readers.

27. Roberts, H.E. "Don't Teach Them to Read," *Elementary English*, 47 (1970), 638-640.

Roberts recommends teaching reading in formal and informal ways to black American children as soon as the children are ready. He maintains that the preschool years would be optimum years for most of these children and outlines a proposed program

which is essentially a language experience approach built upon the black American language and culture.

28. Sheldon, W.D. "Teaching the Very Young to Read," *Reading Teacher*, 16 (1962), 163-169.
Sheldon reviews the major research and practice in early reading and concludes that, while it is obvious that young children can learn to read, evidence about long term effects and desirability of early teaching of reading is inconclusive. He recommends that any reading instruction available in the kindergarten should be informal and that reading per se should not be introduced into the kindergarten curriculum.

29. Sheldon, W.D. "Should the Very Young Be Taught to Read?" *NEA Journal*, 52 (1963), 20-24.
Sheldon maintains that not enough is known about the effects of teaching reading to preschool children to ensure that undesirable physical or emotional effects will not result. He recommends allowing "a four or five year old to read only when he demands a chance to learn" (p. 22) but cautions against deliberately setting up formal, systematic instruction in reading for preschool children.

30. Simms, G. "Teaching Reading: Don't Wait 'Till You're Ready," *Day Care and Early Education*, 3 (1976), 8-9, 45.
This article is essentially a rave on the New Approach Method (NAM) of Prereading and Reading Program written by one of the authors of NAM. The contention is that preschoolers should be taught to read when they are ready, not when adults are ready to teach them. Simms says that about a thousand children have been through the NAM program and claims that all have learned to read in the preschool years. The only description of the program is that it is a series of games and fun activities recorded by a parent. The child plays the recording and "actually plays himself to the skill" (p. 9). No other information about the program or the children taught is provided.

31. Smith, N.B. "Early Reading: Viewpoints," *Childhood Education*, 42 (1965), 229-232, 241.
Smith makes a distinction between teaching pregrade one children to read and allowing those children who are ready or want to, the opportunity to learn to read. She maintains that the global decision to teach young children to read results from an oversimplified concept of the reading process and total disregard for individual differences and cites research evidence to support the position that the early teaching of reading does not

necessarily result in higher achievement. However, the author supports and provides research evidence which supports allowing young children to read if they are ready.

32. Southgate, V. "Early Reading," in J.M. Morris (Ed.), *The First R: Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow*. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1972, 24-35.
In a reasoned and reasonable manner Southgate makes a case for early reading. She outlines twelve arguments against early reading, eight of which maintain that young children cannot learn to read and four of which show why they should not. She responds to the eight "cannots" showing that children can. Replies to the "should nots" are also set out. Southgate concludes that if young children want to learn to read, are interested and can read, then they should be allowed to read.

33. Stevens, G.L., and R.C. Orem. *The Case for Early Reading*. St. Louis: Warren H. Green, 1968.
This book is essentially a rationale for preschool reading. The authors argue that early childhood is a critical period for intellectual growth, especially for learning language. They extend this argument in like fashion to include learning to read. They point out that reading and speaking are the same processes; it is just that they are conducted in different media. Reading, for them, is essentially a matter of perception: children need perceptual stimulation at the proper time of life to imprint on the brain the complex forms of graphic language. Teaching reading, then, is simply a matter of having parents and others capitalize upon these sensitive periods by providing large print sight words repeated in a meaningful way (i.e., with an obvious relation between the word and object named).

34. Sutton, M.H. "Listen to the Little Ones," *Elementary School Journal*, 64 (1964), 297-300.
In this article Sutton argues for teaching reading in kindergarten to those children who are ready and interested. She maintains that the way to proceed with teaching reading in kindergarten is to provide books and other reading materials and let those children who will, work from there.

See also entries numbered 2, 9, 35, 36, 38, 40, 43, 46, 65, 66, 71, 72, 75, 79, 83, 92, 105, 108, 112, 113, 136, 137.

Do early readers maintain a continued advantage?

35. Beck, I.L. "A Longitudinal Study of the Reading Achievement Effects of Formal Reading Instruction in the Kindergarten:

A Summative and Formative Evaluation," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1973.

This study was conducted for the five school years 1967-1968 through 1971-1972 using the total kindergarten population of one school. Each year some of the kindergarten children received a formal, decoding, structured approach to reading, and the remainder of the children received no reading instruction. The main question of the study was: "Do children with kindergarten reading instruction achieve better at the end of grades one, two, three, four, and five than children who did not receive reading instruction in kindergarten?" (Homogeneity of children's IQs was maintained.) Results showed that for all years there were statistically significant differences favoring those who received reading instruction. Beck concludes that the answer to the research question is "yes," those children with reading instruction in kindergarten did demonstrate and maintain superiority in reading. It is worth noting that the children who received reading instruction in kindergarten also received "individualized instruction" in reading during subsequent years in school. Beck does not mention whether the no-kindergarten reading instruction group also received appropriate individualized instruction.

36. Durkin, D. "An Earlier Start in Reading?" *Elementary School Journal*, 63 (1962), 147-151.

Durkin uses data from the first three years of her California study to determine if an earlier start in reading is beneficial. She concludes that children do profit from an earlier start and that the lower the child's intelligence, the greater the advantage seems to be of starting early. (See entry 9 for more details on this study.)

37. Durkin, D. "Children Who Read before First Grade," in W.G. Cutts (Ed.), *Teaching Young Children to Read*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964, 78-84.

Durkin reviews the findings of her California study and examines especially the comparison of the 49 early readers with 201 children in a control group in an attempt to determine if an early start in reading helps. (The results of this study are summarized in entry 9.)

38. Durkin, D. *Early Reading Instruction: Is it Advantageous?* Eric Document ED 072 413, 1971.

Author reviews the literature on prefirst grade school programs for teaching reading and concludes that 1) few studies exist and 2) what studies there are fail to help answer the question of the

value of an earlier start in reading because they are flawed. She discusses four typical shortcomings of the studies. Also outlined is Durkin's research into her language arts program for prefirst grade children. Durkin concludes that it is very difficult to learn about the value of earlier starts in reading because schools often seem unable/unwilling to take advantage of them. She maintains that there simply is not enough known to answer the question posed in the title of the article.

39. McCracken, R.A. "A Two-Year Study of the Reading Achievement of Children Who Were Reading When They Entered First Grade," *Journal of Educational Research*, 59 (1966), 207-210.

Author identified 8 early readers out of 360 children entering grade one in a New York school. He tested their reading achievement over a two year period with the Stanford Achievement Tests and an informal reading inventory. The reading achievement scores for all children were well above average for both years. The children quickly mastered word-pronouncing skills and oral reading skills but at grade two, 7 out of the 8 children failed to comprehend adequately materials for grades four to six on the informal reading inventory because of lack of background information.

40. Moyne, L. "An Individual Study of Reading Acceleration of Two Kindergarten Children," *Elementary English*, 40 (1963), 406-408, 442.

Author found two kindergarten children who were early readers and adjusted the traditional readiness program so they would not be held back. She found they coped quite well emotionally and concluded that 1) individual differences should be recognized and 2) children who are ready should be permitted to read and move ahead in kindergarten.

41. Sutton, M.H. "A Longitudinal Study of Children Who Attained a Degree of Reading Proficiency in Kindergarten," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ball State University, 1967.

Sutton surveyed 105 children entering kindergarten in Muncie, Indiana, for intelligence, personality, and home background. She sought to determine if a subgroup of 46 children who "attained a degree of reading proficiency as a result of instructional reading experience in kindergarten" would retain an advantage over their classmates after three years of school. Sutton also studied in greater detail 20 pairs of children matched on sex, age, and intelligence. One child in each pair was reading at least on a grade one level in kindergarten. At the end of three years, the

author found no significant relationship between reading achievement in kindergarten and reading achievement in grade three. She attributes these results to the failure of the school to supply appropriate instruction based on individual differences.

See also entries numbered 1, 2, 7, 9, 65, 66, 92, 94, 105, 124.

What is the nature of early reading? How/why is early reading accomplished?

42. Callaway, W.R. "Early Reading from a Biological Perspective," in L.O. Ollila et al. (Eds.), *Learning to Read: Reading to Learn*, Proceedings of the Transmountain Far West Regional Reading Conference. Victoria, British Columbia: 1973, 11-27.

    Callaway argues that educators and psychologists have obscured the idea of the possibility of early readers because of attempts to define intelligence in a general way. He maintains that human beings have special capacities that do not depend upon the processes of general maturation for their initiation and development (e.g. language development) and that early reading is one of these special capacities. Callaway concludes (using ethological evidence from biological studies) that specific genetic information is what facilitates early reading and that this biologically determined skill is dependent upon input from environment at certain critical periods. His argument is reminiscent of Chomsky's ideas of a Language Acquisition Device (in this case applied to reading).

43. Enzmann, A.M. "A Look at Early Reading," *Reading Teacher*, 24 (1971), 616-620.

    In five pages, Enzmann wanders in and out of issues related to the how and when of beginning reading. He maintains that schools should be prepared to offer children who are ready a reading program at the kindergarten level. He cites some programs and materials which have been used at this level. His recommendations are that beginning reading instruction should be as meaningful and natural as possible and that the basal should not be considered *the* reading program. Enzmann superficially touches many bases in this article.

44. Lado, R. "Early Reading as Language Development," *Georgetown University Papers on Language and Linguistics*, Number 13, 1976, 8-15.

    Author proposes that, in order to get insight into the reading acquisition process, it must be considered as following a course

parallel to and similar to that of language acquisition. He cites Doman (1964) and Söderbergh (1971) and maintains that breaking into reading will occur at the one-word stage, move to two-word construction, and eventually into sentences. Some general discussion of the principles of teaching early reading and of preschool biliteracy/bilingualism follows. Lado concludes with five recommendations for research needed into early reading/early bilingual reading. The author casts his nets widely but not very deeply.

45. Lado, R. "Preschool Biliteracy: Acquisition and Learning in Early Reading," *Hispania*, 60 (1977), 533-535.
A distinction between acquiring and learning languages is drawn. Lado maintains that both acquisition and learning are involved in mastery. Applying the distinction to early reading, he finds that Doman (1964) and Söderbergh (1971) use an acquisition model and McKee, Brzeinski, and Harrison (1966) use a learning model. He argues that the younger the child, the more there is of acquisition in the process; the older, the more there is of learning—but in every case, both are used. For Lado, teaching early reading is a matter of providing for acquisition and for learning.

46. Pflaum, S.W. *The Development of Language and Reading in the Young Child*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1974.
Chapter 8 of this book is titled "Beginning Readers and Beginning Reading." In it, Pflaum has a section on Early Reading and Early Readers in which she reviews American studies in early reading—essentially Durkin's work and the Denver Project. She concludes that early reading is "still a somewhat controversial topic" but feels that it is generally accepted that early reading is not harmful. She maintains that if preschool children want to read, they should be helped to do so.

47. Price, E.H. "How Thirty-Seven Gifted Children Learned to Read," *Reading Teacher*, 30 (1976), 44-48.
Price used a parental questionnaire to examine the preschool experiences of 37 gifted fourth, fifth, and sixth graders in an exceptional child program at one American school. Twenty-eight of the children were early readers, and all but one were reading shortly after entering grade one. The relative percentages of early readers who learned to read incidentally versus being taught systematically cannot be determined exactly because of the manner in which data are reported. However, it can be said that the majority of these early readers learned to read incidentally. Also, almost every early reader was regularly read

to at home. In addition, Price examined the ages at which the 37 children first walked and spoke, the methods used to teach them in school, the size of their families, their position in the family, and other anecdotal data on language and reading. However, further specific conclusions about early readers cannot be made because of the way the results are presented.

48. Sakamoto, T. "Preschool Reading in Japan," *Reading Teacher*, 29 (1975), 240-244.
Author maintains that most Japanese children begin reading at home at age four without any formal readiness or reading instruction. He cites parents' willingness to participate with their children in reading activities as the main reason for this early reading. He includes a discussion of the nature of the Hiragana and Kanji characters and the extent to which preschool children read them.

49. Söderbergh, R. "Reading and Stages of Language Acquisition," paper presented at the Ninth International Congress of Anthropological and Ethnological Sciences, Chicago, September 1973.
Söderbergh argues that young children learn spoken language simply by being exposed to it and that children can learn to read in a similar fashion if the reading material presented follows roughly the stages by which children normally acquire spoken language. She chooses, however, to emphasize only certain aspects of the language acquisition process: 1) There is a development in sentence length from one word to two words and then to three words and 2) the words used initially are concrete substantives, verbs denoting visible actions, or decitics (this, there, etc.). Gradually determiners, adjectives, and plural endings appear. She describes Doman's method (1964) for teaching young children to read and maintains that the method is well-suited to the idea of children's learning to read as they learned to speak *if* the steps Doman outlines are matched to the children's developing stages of language acquisition. It is, of course, quite warranted to question how closely Doman's notions correspond to the actual process of language acquisition by the children.

50. Söderbergh, R. "Learning to Read between Two and Five: Some Observations on Normal Hearing and Deaf Children," *Georgetown University Papers on Languages and Linguistics*, Number 13, 1976, 35-57.
Söderbergh reports results of case studies of the progress of 10 preschool children (3 normal hearing, 5 severely hearing

impaired, 2 totally deaf) in learning to read Swedish at home. Included among the case studies is that of the author's daughter (reported in more detail in Söderbergh, 1971). The other two normal hearing children were taught to read using materials Söderbergh constructed as a result of her experiences with her daughter. The hearing impaired and deaf children were initially taught with these materials, but techniques were soon modified to better suit the children. The materials consisted of 208 reading cards (with accompanying instructions) based on principles outlined by Doman (1964) and Söderbergh (1973). The author summarizes details on the reading development of the children under Reading Single Words, Reading Sentences, and Reading Stories.

51. Söderbergh, R. "Learning to Read: Breaking the Code or Acquiring Functional Literacy," *Georgetown University Papers on Languages and Linguistics*, Number 13, 1976, 16-34.

    Using reading diaries kept for 10 preschool children in her earlier case studies (Söderbergh 1971, 1976), the author attempts to draw out evidence to support her contention that, by following a Doman-type approach, it is possible for children to acquire "functioning written language" of their own in the same ways and at the same ages that they acquire spoken language, even though the children may not recognize the relations (phoneme-grapheme correspondences) between the spoken and the written.

52. Weeks, T.E. "Early Reading Acquisition as Language Development," *Language Arts*, 56 (1979), 515-521.

    Using the studies of Söderbergh (1976), Steinberg and Steinberg (1975), and her own research with a bright child who had extreme difficulty in learningto produce oral language, Weeks argues that oral language development does not need to precede the acquisition of reading. In her own study, Weeks found that reading helped her subject improve her use of functors in oral speech. She also found that the girl seemed to use the spelling of words to help her in learning how to articulate words more clearly. Weeks concludes that oral language is "not intrinsically primary" and that if two modes of language are acquired simultaneously, each helps enrich the other. She also cites the research of Durkin (1966) and Clark (1976) to support the contention that the effects of early reading are long lasting.

53. White, D. *Books before Five*. Auckland: New Zealand Council for Educational Research, 1954.

    This book is a diary a mother/librarian kept of her daughter's

experiences with reading and writing from early 1948 (child's age approximately two) to late 1950 (child's age approximately five). The mother is knowledgeable about literature and writing and is in touch with her child. There are many insightful comments on the connection between a child's life and books—why book x works at y time and why not. Includes many descriptions/evaluations of children's books. Two points on early reading are repeated throughout the book: 1) The child enjoyed the repetition in stories such as Mother Goose and found comfort in the "simple patterns of a familiar story" even when she was capable of following more complicated things and 2) in the younger years, it is important that there be "known things" in the books read.

See also entries numbered 1, 2, 9, 105, 108, 115.

Preschool biliteracy

54. Andersson, T. "A Proposed Investigation of Preschool Biliteracy," paper presented at the Fourth International Congress of Applied Linguistics, Stuttgart, August 1975.

Paper outlines the rationale and timetable for a longitudinal study which would evaluate the hypothesis that Spanish dominant Mexican-American children can learn to read Spanish and understand English between the ages of two and four and then learn to read English between the ages of four and six, thus entering school with readiness at least equal to that of the monolingual English speaking child. The program was planned to be conducted in the homes of the children (Austin, Texas, area) by parents and visiting bilingual teachers, aides, and volunteers. The method for teaching reading in both languages is essentially that advocated by Doman (1964).

55. Andersson, T. "Biliteracy, or the Bilingual Child's Right to Read," *Journal of the Linguistic Association of the Southwest*, 1 (1975), 54-62.

Andersson argues that non-English speaking children in an English speaking society have the *right* to learn to read in their mother tongue initially and they subsequently can learn to read English by transferring their learning habits to the acquisition of literacy in English. This argument is then applied specifically to preschool children. The author cites anecdotal, pseudo-scientific, and scientific sources in an attempt to establish the idea that young children have great capacities for language acquisition and, thus, early childhood is the best time to attempt to capitalize upon this learning potential. Andersson maintains

that preschool bilingual children should be taught to read in two languages and that they should be taught in a manner similar to that described by Doman (1964) and Söderbergh (1971).

56. Andersson, T. "The Bilingual Child's Right to Read," *Georgetown University Papers on Languages and Linguistics*, Number 12, 1976, 63-72.
Again, much the same content as "Biliteracy, or the Bilingual Child's Right to Read" and "The Biiingual Child's Right to Read" where Andersson cites the work of Jane Torrey, Burton White, Glenn Doman, and Ragnhild Söderbergh in support of his idea that young children should be taught to read and that Mexican-American children should become biliterate in early childhood. A brief outline of his Preschool Biliteracy Project is included. (See entry 54 for more details on this project.)

57. Andersson, T. "A Preschool Biliteracy Project," *Georgetown University Papers on Languages and Linguistics*, Number 13, 1976, 1-7.
Paper essentially replicates the rationale of Andersson's "A Proposed Investigation of Preschool Biliteracy" (entry 54) and then goes on to include new information about the results of the first few months of the project. At that time, there were 18 children enrolled (ages 1.2 to 5.4) ranging from ENGLISH-Spanish to English-SPANISH in language dominances. Parental guidelines for teaching reading are outlined. Andersson notes that the project had not attracted any working class mothers.

58. Andersson, T. "Preschool Biliteracy: Historical Background," *Hispania*, 60 (1977), 527-530.
Article strongly recommends a bilingual program that is not merely transitional but which will establish oral fluency and literacy in both languages. The argument is developed much along the lines of the 1976 paper "Preschool Biliteracy" (entry 57). Advocates teaching Mexican-American children to read in Spanish and English before coming to school

59. Christian, C. "Preschool Biliteracy: Preschool Literacy in Spanish," *Hispania*, 60 (1977), 530-532.
Article is a chatty case study about the author's children (one boy, one girl) who began reading in Spanish at about age two years and upon entering kindergarten learned quickly to read English although they had spoken the language only minimally before entering school. There is not a great deal of attention to method of learning/teaching in the article, but Christian is associated with Andersson and, thus, with Doman's ideas (1964) on early reading.

60. Past, A.W. "Preschool Reading in Two Languages as a Factor in Bilingualism," unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Texas at Austin, 1976.

Past's daughter was exposed to reading and speaking in English and Spanish for three years, beginning at age two, to determine 1) if she would learn to read both languages in much the same way and at the same time she learned to speak them and 2) if access to "native-quality, printed Spanish" would contribute to her bilingualism. The reading sessions were conducted essentially according to Doman's method (1964). Assessment of reading (by an informal reading inventory) and of oral language at age five showed that the child did learn to read and speak the two languages at the same time. Hypothesis 2 could not be reliably measured.

See also entries numbered 45, 99.

Pedagogical Issues in Early Reading

This section contains the largest number of entries of any of the parts of the bibliography. Virtually every author had something to say about teaching reading at an early age. However, only the references which concentrated almost solely on pedagogical issues are included here. Even with this restriction, it seems that this section also contains the most diverse collection of entries—diverse both in terms of the nature of the teaching recommendations made and in terms of the quality of the scholarship contained in the entries themselves. Examination of the issues present in the references listed permits one to note the scope and nature of the arguments about the ways of teaching young children to read.

61. Begg, J.A., and M.M. Clay. "A Note on Teaching a Preschooler to Read: Some Problems of Evaluation," *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 3 (1968), 171-174.*

The progress of 1 three year old child who was receiving reading instruction from his mother was compared with 20 five year old children of similar intelligence who were receiving group instruction in school. The authors concentrate on the methodological problems concerned with early reading. The reading program being used for the three year old was similar to that advocated by Doman (1964), and some of Doman's claims about the method were investigated. The child in this study did make progress comparable to that made by the five year olds in the sample. However, contrary to Doman's proposition that it is easier to teach a young child to read, the authors found that "it was not really *easy* to teach a three year old to read" (p. 172). The authors recommend that in future research in early reading the following factors be incorporated or investigated: 1) The value of intensive versus more relaxed, long term contact programs; 2) the rate of loss when instruction is discontinued; 3) determination of the levels (semantic, word, letter) on which young children are able to learn about languages; and 4) the impact of school instruction on children who have had various types of preschool programs.

62. Blanton, W.E. *Preschool Reading Instruction: A Literature Search, Evaluation and Interpretation*, Final Report. Volume 1: Information for the Administrator. Volume 2: Information for the Teacher. Volume 3: Information for the Parent. Eric documents ED 069 345, ED 069 346, ED 069 347, 1971.

Volume 1 discusses the origins and types of preschool reading instruction, reviews research on preschool reading and reading readiness conducted during 1970-1971, and provides a school (kindergarten) reading program. Volume 2 repeats the outline of origins/types of early reading instruction and the review of research. Blanton offers activities and behavioral objectives for developing readiness and for preschool reading instruction. Volume 3 includes brief discussions of authorities' opinions on early reading and a short overview of different methods. The author maintains that formal (carefully planned) instruction is preferable to informal. He suggests appropriate activities and materials for preschool reading instruction.

63. Boney, C.D. "Teaching Children to Read as They Learned to Talk," *Elementary English*, 16 (1939), 139-141, 156.

Boney maintains that preschool (kindergarten) reading instruction should take the form of general guidance in a concentrated, enjoyable reading environment. In such a situation, children learn to read much as they learned to talk, by existing in a "reading environment" and receiving individualized responses to questions asked about the meanings of words, thus grasping the symbol "without an undue amount of difficulty."

64. Brown, M.W. "A Study of Reading Ability in Preschool Children," unpublished master's thesis, Stanford University, 1924.

Brown describes her successful efforts to teach 2 three year olds to read. The teaching sessions took place in the children's homes over a three month period. The author also details the methods by which she attempted to teach two groups of preschool children (aged 1.10 to 5.11) to read.

65. Brzeinski, J.E. "Beginning Reading in Denver," *Reading Teacher*, 18 (1964), 16-21.

Brzeinski argues against the traditional mental age and associated criteria for reading readiness. He then sketches the rationale of the Denver program which essentially is as follows: Children know the sounds and meanings of many words. What they need to be taught is that the sounds they know are represented by particular letters and combinations of letters.

These skills, in connection with use of context clues, can provide the first steps toward independent reading. The author goes on to outline the scope of the Denver project which began in 1960 and was intended to study students in a longitudinal fashion from their kindergarten year through grade five (1966). (For more details and subsequent results see entries 66 and 92.)

66. Brzeinski, J.E. "Reading in the Kindergarten," in W. Cutts (Ed.), *Teaching Young Children to Read*, Proceedings of a Conference, November 14-16, 1962. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964, 50-58.

Reports on the first two years of the Denver kindergarten reading project. In the project, 2,000 children in the experimental group received reading instruction in kindergarten—a formal program, 20 minutes per day, heavily phonics based. [See P. McKee and M.L. Harrison, *Program in Skills Basic to Beginning Reading* (1960) for an indication of the nature of the approach.] The control group consisted of 2,000 children also, and they received the "regular program" (no description given; the reader is referred to Denver Public School curriculum guides). The study continued in grade one where half the experimental group received an adjusted program and half the regular program. The main variable was the time of initial instruction in reading (kindergarten versus first grade). The hypotheses were that the experimental group would read better and have better attitudes toward reading and that the experimental group getting the adjusted grade one program would continue to be superior in reading and general school achievement. Results confirmed the hypotheses: 1) The time of introduction to beginning reading had a significant effect on achievement in kindergarten and at the end of grade one and 2) the best reading achievement occurred when adjustments were made in the first grade program which took into account the achievement in kindergarten. (See entry 94 for a critique of this study.)

67. Cohan, M. "Two and a Half and Reading," *Elementary English*, 38 (1962), 181-183.

Reports on a two and one-half year old girl's learning to identify 40 words in a 20 day period. Emphasized are the facts that the words came from the child herself and that the mother played games with words, all the while praising the child's correct responses. An attempt was made to get the child to read sentences also, but no progress was made as the child's interest had waned almost completely.

68. Doman, G. *How to Teach Your Baby to Read: The Gentle Revolution*. New York: Random House, 1964.
Using suspicious logic and largely pseudoscientific evidence, Doman argues that it is possible to greatly increase children's learning and that children should learn to read between the ages of one and five. He maintains that the older the children are, the harder it is to teach them to read. The bulk of the book describes Doman's method for teaching preschoolers to read. The basic methodology is whole-word.

69. Doman, G., G.L. Stevens, and R.C. Orem. "You Can Teach Your Baby to Read," *Ladies Home Journal*, 80 (1963), 62-63, 124-126.
This article is essentially a cut-down version of Doman's *How to Teach Your Baby to Read* and is written in a chatty style for a general audience. The authors outline the rationale, materials, and method for teaching two year old children to read. The following steps are advocated for the process, and they are explained in the article: 1) Visual Differentiation, 2) Body-Image Words, 3) Environmental Vocabulary, 4) Sentences, 5) Reading a Book, and 6) The Alphabet.

70. Durkin, D. "A Language Arts Program for Prefirst Grade Children: Two Year Achievement Report," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 5 (1970), 534-565.
Author details a program designed to provide the opportunity for preschool children to develop their abilities in the language arts. The program is characterized by 1) giving a great deal of attention to writing as well as to reading, 2) using student-centered interests for developing language arts activities, 3) employing primarily a whole-word approach for the first year with incidental attention to phonics, 4) teaching letter names and numerals, and 5) reading to children daily. Durkin reports achievement results for 36 children involved in the program and concludes that additional carefully designed longitudinal studies are needed to answer questions about the benefits and feasibility of such a program for all preschool children.

71. Durkin, D. *Teaching Young Children to Read*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1972; Second Edition, 1976.
This book presents information and recommendations on many facets of teaching preschool, kindergarten, and first grade children to read. It details Durkin's concept of a language arts program for young children and makes recommendations on instructional techniques for 1) extending the listening/speaking

vocabulary, 2) teaching writing, 3) teaching reading (word identification, word analysis), and 4) language arts programs. The instructional suggestions are based on the premise that children younger than six can learn to read through methods devoid of pressure and full of interest.

72. Durkin, D. "Facts about Prefirst Grade Reading," in L.O. Ollila (Ed.), *The Kindergarten Child and Reading*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1977, 1-12.
Durkin summarizes findings about early reading from her research and discusses the history of the issue of early reading from the mid fifties to the present. She also reviews other studies on earlier starts to reading instruction in school. Durkin then focuses on instructional practices in the American kindergarten and argues that most changes which have been implemented in the kindergarten were not rationally planned but "happened" because of fashion or community reaction. She concludes that most American kindergartens today are attempting to teach reading and that the usual way of doing so is by commercially produced materials/reading schemes. Durkin maintains that child-centered instruction would be most appropriate for teaching reading in the kindergarten but points out that for such instruction to be implemented it is necessary to have a knowledgeable, imaginative teacher *and* a school administrator who will support such a program.

73. Emery, D. *Teach Your Preschooler to Read*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1975.
After knocking down several strawmen which he has dutifully set up, Emery traces the cause of America's reading problems to the home. He maintains that there is generally not enough input, but that with sufficient stimulation at the "teachable moment" (around age four), children will learn to read. The argument he posits is essentially a quantitative, assembly line one. His solution to problems in teaching reading rests largely on the amount of practice and the repetition provided within a set, linear notion of how reading is learned. Emery maintains that by their questions, four year old children will show when they are ready to learn to read and that parents are the appropriate persons to do the teaching in such case. His description of an environment conductive to preschool reading takes account of the main characteristics posited by Teale (1978). However, the program Emery recommends rests strongly on a rigidly preconceived decoding scope and sequence for reading which relies heavily on repetition and reinforcement.

74. Evans, J.L. "Teaching Reading by Machine: A Case History in Early Reading Behavior," *AV Communication Review*, 13 (1965), 303-308.

Evans' purpose is to "detail the reading behavior of one young child" over a period of two and one-half years (approximately ages three to five and one-half). The subject (KE) began reading instruction on a teaching machine. The instruction itself was phonics and was conducted over a period of four months (actual instruction time was five hours and forty-two minutes). Instruction was based on the theory that a reader scans a phonetic word letter by letter, produces a sound equivalent of each letter, and then synthesizes the word into its normal pronunciation (p. 305). Following the machine/phonics phase of instruction, the child was started on "a new program designed to teach reading of nonphonic material" which consisted of reading basal readers to and with the author. Standardized testing at ages 3.11, 4.6, 5.0 and 5.6 showed KE achieving average comprehension and word recognition scores of grades 3.0, 3.5, and 4.5 for the first three testings. (No comprehension test was given at age 5.6.)

75. Fowler, W. "Teaching a Two Year Old to Read: An Experiment in Early Childhood Learning," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 66 (1962), 181-283.

This monograph is a detailed case study report of Fowler's attempts to teach his two year old daughter to read over a nine month period. The methods of instruction always aimed to approximate play and to keep the child interested as much as possible. Reinforcement and reward were stressed in the teaching. A whole word approach predominated from the beginning to the end of the instructional period. Words and sentences were presented on flash cards. Vocabulary was chosen according to structural simplicity, phonic factors, the child's interest, and frequency of occurrence in language. Later in the program, systematic phonics was introduced. Pre- and posttest data on reading achievement, intelligence and psychosocial development and functioning are also reported. Major findings were that the child made reasonable progress in reading single words and that some progress was made in reading short sentences (on individual cards) and texts. The author concludes that while it is apparent that a two year old child of high abilities can make considerable progress in reading, the amount of fluency and autonomy which can be achieved in reading texts is still in doubt.

76. Fowler, W. "Structural Dimensions of the Learning Process in Early Reading," *Child Development*, 35 (1964), 1093-1104.

Fowler proposes a framework for defining, grading, and teaching the dimensions of reading to young children. Basically his idea is that the larger system (reading) must first be broken into its component units, and then units which lead to discrimination and identification of the system should be selected for teaching. Thus, he holds that the act of reading can be analyzed hierarchically and instruction programed along a continuum of complexity. Fowler sees reading as being comprised of three levels: 1) phoneme-grapheme correspondence, 2) patterning of morphemes into sentences (syntax), and 3) patterning of meanings (semantics). He maintains that the semantic level will take care of itself in reading and that the main task of the child is to learn the phoneme-grapheme correspondences, with work on the syntactic level (2) also being necessary. The program itself is composed of "problem solving tasks based on matching principles" on the two levels. Unlike his earlier work (Fowler, 1962) phonics is now an integral part of instruction from the beginning. In Level 1 there are single words (*cat*) and graphemes (*c, a, t*). The child must match the components with the whole. With Level 2 this procedure is conducted with sentences (wholes) and words (parts). Fowler explains that these tasks require analysis and synthesis and explains the sequence upon which each of the levels is developed. He says that 30 preschool children have been involved in the program and that all have made progress in reading.

77. Fowler, W. "A Study of Process and Method in Three Year Old Twins and Triplets Learning to Read," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 72 (1965), 3-89.

Author describes an experiment in which 6 three year olds (one member of each pair of three identical twins, two members of a set of triplets, and Fowler's daughter) received 15 to 30 minutes of reading instruction, 4 to 5 days per week for a 2½ to 5 month period. Four twin controls received no reading instruction. The program provided was a "systematic analytic-synthetic approach," characterized by 1) systematic and structured (phonic) presentation and 2) the use of play orientation. Results showed that 3 of the experimental group made good progress advancing to and achieving at stage two of the program. The remaining 3 experimental children made "some progress" in learning individual words and phonic units, but none of them reached a point of reading even single, whole-sentence units independently. None of the control group showed any indication of the ability to read words, letters, or sentences.

78. Fowler, W. "A Developmental Learning Strategy for Early Reading in a Laboratory Nursery School," *Interchange*, 2 (1971), 106-125.

109 children (ages 3.3 to 3.11) were put through Fowler's phonics oriented developmental learning program for teaching reading in a preschool institutional setting. Posttests of knowledge of phoneme-grapheme correspondence, word recognition, word generalization, sentence reading, and paragraph reading showed that, regardless of the posttest measure, a large majority (74) of the 109 children learned to read with comparative ease, regularity, and fluency, given the systematic program. Fowler attributes success to his analytic-synthetic matching tasks which "greatly facilitated children's learning of critical (phonic) rules upon which word and sentence structure are based" (p. 120).

79. Hirsch, E.S. "What Are Good Responsive Environments for Young Children? A Critical Discussion of O.K. Moore's Theoretical Formulations," *Young Children*, 28 (1972), 75-80.

Hirsch details the main principles underlying O.K. Moore's "Talking Typewriter" approach to the learning of writing/reading and speaking/listening, maintaining that the principles are important ones for learning but finds that Moore has omitted some equally important areas, notably those of the role of past experiences in learning and of maturational sequences and needs. She argues that Moore does not allow learners to develop learning styles uniquely their own but basically applies a rewarding reinforcement principle. The author concludes that any good learning environment must take into account Moore's principles (and those he has omitted) but that ultimately the good classroom is better than the computer environment.

80. Huey, E.B. *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*. New York: Macmillan, 1908.

In Chapter 16 Huey discusses "Learning to Read at Home." He advocates what may generally be termed a language experience approach and maintains that meaning should always be central in the process of learning to read. He also discusses children who "learn to read for themselves" and likens this way of learning to the manner in which oral language is learned.

81. Hughes, F. *Reading and Writing before School*. London: Jonathan Cape, 1971.

Drawing almost exclusively upon the theory and practices of Doman (1964), Hughes puts forth a rationale and method for

teaching preschoolers to read. The only divergence from the "Doman line" is that Hughes advocates instruction in phonics in addition to Doman's suggestions. She outlines the scope and sequence of activities for teaching early reading and details step by step how she taught her two year old daughter to read. Also included are suggestions for teaching preschoolers to write and ideas on how Doman's principles might be applied to teaching classes of children in a school setting.

82. Hymes, J.L. "More Pressure for Early Reading," *Child Education*, 40 (1963), 34-35.
Hymes condemns the proposals on "teaching your baby to read" put forth by Doman, Stevens, and Orem (1963). He discusses how their ideas disregard individual differences in children and argues that each child should be allowed to "come to" reading in his/her own time. Hymes warns that there may be serious effects on children if Doman, Stevens, and Orem's methods are applied.

83. Interorganizational Committee. "Reading and Prefirst Grade: A Joint Statement of Concerns about Present Practices in Prefirst Grade Reading Instruction and Recommendations for Improvement," *Language Arts*, 59 (1977), 459-461.
The title adequately outlines the content of this statement. Concerns are directed mainly at structured (pre-) reading programs, the pressure for formal assessment of such programs, and the need for the rationalization by teachers of preschool reading programs. The recommendations call for a language arts type approach to preschool reading with appropriate evaluation procedures and concern for the individual child.

84. Jocić, M. "Some Psycholinguistic Aspects of the Acquisition of Reading in Early Childhood," in K. Sornig (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Fourth International Congress of Applied Linguistics*. Stuttgart, 1975, 369-378.
Author describes a one year experiment aimed at teaching reading. The experiment involved 11 children who ranged in ages from 2.11 to 3.4 when the experiment began. Nine of these children were selected because they were tested by a psychologist, were found to be average, and thus deemed representative of typical kindergarten children. However, what the children were average in is not reported. The bulk of the article is given to describing the reading program itself which was conducted three to five minutes daily in the initial phase of the experiment and gradually lengthened to five to twenty minutes daily. The program was essentially a whole word approach based on Doman's ideas (1964). The "tenor" of the experiment was that the

teaching should be carried out through play without pressure on the children to participate. Jocić reports the following results: 1) one child had "completely mastered the reading ability," 2) four children were "reading well" but only words no longer than five letters, 3) two children were able to read only one syllable words of two or three letters, and 4) four children were able to recognize letters but not link them into words. From these results, the author concludes that the program was helpful in developing reading skills and the cognitive development of one's speech must precede learning to read. It is somewhat difficult to see how this latter conclusion was arrived at considering the design of the experiment.

85. Kelly, M.L. "Reading in the Kindergarten," in J.A. Figurel (Ed.), *Reading and Inquiry*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1965, 446-448.

Kelly outlines the broad principles of a Livermore, California, kindergarten reading program which seeks to teach all interested and ready children to read. She also summarizes a study in which kindergarten children were categorized as high or low IQ and then randomly assigned to either an experimental group for reading instruction or to a control group for readiness instruction for a period of one school year. Results on the California Reading Tests indicated that children in the experimental group surpassed those of the control group in reading scores, but there is no indication that the difference was significant.

86. Kelly, M.L., and M.K. Chen. "An Experimental Study of Formal Reading Instruction at the Kindergarten Level," *Journal of Educational Research*, 60 (1967), 224-229.

The authors report on a study in which 221 children were classified as high or low on reading readiness and intelligence variables and then randomly assigned to either a traditional readiness program or to formal reading instruction for four months in an attempt to determine if reading instruction at the kindergarten level "would increase the children's reading skills and favorably dispose them toward reading activities and the school" (p. 224). No description is given of either the readiness or the reading programs. Results indicated that subjects in the formal reading program excelled significantly in reading skills (global score from California Reading Test), but that attitudes toward school and reading habits were not affected by the type of program.

87. Lado, R. "Early Reading by a Child with Severe Hearing Loss as an Aid to Linguistic and Intellectual Development," *George-*

town University Papers on Languages and Linguistics, Number 6, 1972, 1-6.

Lado reports teaching a young child with severe hearing loss to speak and read. Reading instruction was begun when the child was 2.8. In general the lessons were conducted in a game-like fashion. The steps in the method were as follows: 1) Lado taught the child about 100 words, most of which could be depicted in drawing; 2) words with a minimal sound contrast were taught; 3) two-word phrases were taught, first with appropriate drawings and then without drawings; 4) "three-element" sentences were taught (The blue fish swims.); 5) letters of the alphabet were taught via initial position in single words; 6) a group of words within a concept were taught (living room chair, piano, sofa, lamp); 7) sentences which could be answered ("What is...?" "Where is...?") and partially illustrated anecdotes based on the child's experiences were used; and 8) the techniques of reading and answering questions were employed. At age 4.7 the child was not reading "freely" but had read some 500 words in 25 little books. Lado concludes that the achievement to date is definitely positive, despite the irregularity of the program.

88. Ledson, S. *Teach Your Child to Read in 60 Days*. New York: W.W. Norton, 1975.

Ledson cites his objections to the academic/educational approach to reading and reading research being carried out in schools and details how he taught his two young (2.9 and 3.11) daughters to read. His method was essentially a synthetic phonic/quasi i.t.a. approach which utilized operant conditioning, presenting the reading tasks in game-like situations and having tangible (edible) rewards. In diary/pseudo-novelistic form Ledson presents at great length the steps by which he taught his children. Subsequently he provides recommendations for other parents who want to teach their children to read in a short period of time.

89. MacKinnon, A.R. "Exploration for Instructional Design and Early Reading Programs," in W.G. Cutts (Ed.), *Teaching Young Children to Read*, Proceedings of a Conference, November 14-16, 1962. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964, 93-96.

MacKinnon outlines the purpose of a two year study of the speech and drawings of four and five year old children. To determine how written and spoken symbols complement and reinforce one another, children were asked to draw and talk about their drawings. The author concluded that the drawings represented a

form of abstract thinking and, as children advanced in language, there was a parallel increase in abstract thinking demonstrated in their drawing. MacKinnon calls for these findings to be applied to the design of materials for the first steps in reading. He feels that such materials should start with familiar meanings expressed in letters, phrases, and sentences together but that these should be presented in a controlled way so that the child can discover the necessary relation without experiencing frustration. He suggests that control can be achieved by "letter-by-letter" variations. The entire article is rather vague on the exact design and findings of the research study and on the nature and application of the materials proposed.

90. Mayfield, M.R. "Individualized Reading Instruction within an Experimental Preschool," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1969.

Thirty-two middle to upper-middle class preschool children were divided into two equal groups and matched on sex, chronological age, and mental age. The experimental group received daily five-minute individualized reading which could be described as a language experience approach and supplemental group reading instruction. The control group received only the group reading instruction. Pre- and posttest measures included 1) a 25 word, word recognition test; 2) "The Mother's Words," in which each child's mother was asked to write 15 words she felt her child could read; and 3) 20 words and sentences drawn from instructional content common to both groups. These measures yielded group differences favoring the experimental group. (The word recognition test and the 20 words/sentences were statistically significant.) Mayfield concludes that the individualized approach is more effective than a group instructional approach (but it is difficult to justify this conclusion since the experimental children also received group instruction), and that the results provide additional evidence that preschool children can learn to read.

91. McDowell, E.E. "A Review of Learning Principles Applicable to Preschool Reading Instruction," *Educational Technology*, 11 (1971), 67-72.

The author takes a firm behavioral psychology approach to reading in this article. He argues that transfer of training and operant conditioning principles are eminently suitable for teaching reading and maintains that, because preschool children can be taught to read, these principles should be applied to their reading instruction. The level of reading focused upon is

essentially that of the word. One must assume the author considers the sentence and discourse levels as mere aggregate extensions of word reading. The author also discusses the efficacy of programed instruction. Although he quibbles with particulars of various cueing techniques and unit sizes, he certainly believes that this general type of instruction takes account of the important principles in learning to read.

92. McKee, P., J.E. Brzeinski, and M.L. Harrison. *The Effectiveness of Teaching Reading in Kindergarten*, Cooperative Research Project No. 5-0371. Denver Public Schools and Colorado State Department of Education, 1966.

Final report on the six year Denver Project which sought to determine the efficiency of beginning systematic teaching of reading in kindergarten (k). Subjects were the 4,000 students who entered Denver kindergarten classes in 1960. The experimental treatment consisted of daily, supplementary, twenty minute sessions in "planned sequential instruction" which heavily emphasized phonics. Subjects participated in either 1) a Full Term Experimental Group (experimental program in k and adjusted program in later grades), 2) a Short Term Experimental Group (experimental program in k and regular program in later grades), 3) a Delayed Experimental Group (regular program in k and experimental/adjusted program in later grades), or 4) a Control Group (regular program throughout).

Major findings of the Denver Project were:

1. The basic skills of reading emphasized in the experimental program can be taught effectively to large numbers of typical kindergarten children.
2. Optimum reading achievement occurred with a full term adjusted program.
3. The time of introduction of beginning reading activities had a significant effect on achievement.
4. The permanence of gains in reading during the kindergarten year depended upon subsequent instruction.
5. No evidence was found that the experimental early instruction in beginning reading affected visual acuity, created emotional difficulties, or caused dislike for reading.

(See Mood, 1967, for a critique of this study.)

93. Montes, F. "Incidental Teaching of Beginning Reading in a Day Care Center," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1974.

The author attempted to develop a methodology by which incidental teaching episodes could be used to teach reading to

preschool children. When children requested play materials, they were required initially to match and subsequently to identify the first letter or name of the requested items. "Weekly tests showed dramatic increase in the children's ability to identify letters." Montes concludes that incidental teaching can be useful for improving children's reading skills.

94. Mood, D.W. "Reading in Kindergarten? A Critique of the Denver Study," *Educational Leadership*, 24 (1967), 399-403.

Mood suggests that the results of the Denver Study on kindergarten reading (McKee, Brzeinski, and Harrison, 1966) be viewed with caution because of the following methodological flaws:

1. In the study, at least two independent variables—method and material—were manipulated, thus making it impossible to attribute the superior achievement results of the experimental group to the method as the authors do.
2. The test used to measure kindergarten achievement corresponded to the program to which the experimental group was exposed. The experimental group's superior performance may have resulted from their having an "appropriate 'response set'."
3. The study began with 1,250 subjects in the experimental group and 750 subjects in the control group. When the experiment was over, numbers had dropped to 759 and 225 respectively. These losses of 39 percent (experimental) and 70 percent (control) may easily have affected the randomness of the sample. No account of this fact is taken in the analysis.
4. The data are presented in incomplete and inconsistent ways.

Mood concludes that "consumer" of this educational research must beware.

95. Moore, O.K., and A.R. Anderson. "The Responsive Environments Project," in R.D. Hess and R.M. Bear (Eds.), *Early Education: Current Theory, Research, and Action*. Chicago: Aldine, 1968, 171-189.

Authors provide a brief description of the Responsive Environments Project, one facet of which aims to teach preschool children to read. The project was a "talking typewriter" which provides either the name and/or phonetic value of the letter(s), word, sentence, or paragraph the child types in or speaks a phonetic value of word, sentence, or paragraph for which the child must type the appropriate letter(s). Thus, the talking typewriter could give or take dictation (with or without projections onto its screen), and could be programed to respond in

a variety of ways. In attempting to teach a child to read, one would program a sequence of steps which would lead the child to "crack the code." Moore and Anderson maintain that the younger the child starts to learn with the talking typewriter, the better.

96. Mountain, L. *How Parents Are Teaching their Preschoolers to Read*. Eric Document ED 113 695, 1974.
Mountain outlines a collection of methods and materials parents can use in teaching their preschoolers to read. There is little coherent rationale or overall direction to the suggestions; they appear to be things that have worked at various times in various situations. The tenor of the article is captured in the following: "If you find yourself getting nowhere (with word cards) after a week or two of one minute sessions, you might want to try phonic games instead" (p. 3). The author then suggests that you wait a while before going ahead with reading instruction. The methods and materials advocated by Mountain are 1) word cards, 2) stories about the children (their environments, friends, etc.) written by their parents, and 3) phonics games. A description of the creation and use of each is provided.

97. Niedermeyer, F.C. "Parents Teach Kindergarten Reading at Home," *Elementary School Journal*, 70 (1970), 438-445.
In the first part of this article, Niedermeyer outlines the Parent Assisted Learning Program (PALP, a part of the Southwest Regional Laboratory Kindergarten Reading Curriculum). Through highly programed instruction, parents learn how to teach their children to recognize 90 one-syllable words and to master certain beginning consonant and end vowel-consonant sounds. Author then goes on to report results of a study which compared children in the program on their achievement with respect to the program's objectives. The children in the program did significantly better. Niedermeyer concludes that a carefully developed program of school-related home instruction can elicit high levels of parent participation and pupil learning. The amount of actual parent teaching vis-à-vis pupil achievement is not examined. More importantly, the study is quite "hermetically sealed." Nowhere does the author examine the value of the objectives of the program in a larger context of learning to read.

98. Noonan, R.L. *A Community College Self-Instructional Unit in Early Reading for Preschoolers: Curriculum Development*. Eric Document ED 163 403, 1978.
The author developed, along a behavioral objective framework, a self-instructional unit designed to apprise community college

students of 1) the reasons cited in the literature for and against early reading, 2) the "skills generally accepted as necessary for success in reading," and 3) the criteria for a successful early reading program. The unit consists of expository text written by the author, suggestions for readings and activities, and pre- and posttests. The tenor of the unit is supportive of early reading. The author also reports the results of trying the unit on two students. Generally, this project seems naive in terms of its objectives; it attempts too much and, as a result, ends up being much too superficial while clinging to its rather mechanical format.

99. Past, K.E.C. "A Case Study of Preschool Reading and Speaking Acquisition in Two Languages," *Georgetown University Papers on Languages and Linguistics*, Number 13, 1976, 58-73.

Past describes a two year experiment in preschool biliteracy in which her daughter was exposed to English and Spanish from age 1.11. At 4.1 she was reading fluently in both languages at a first or second grade level. Provides brief descriptions of both her language and reading lessons from the time she first showed an interest in looking at picture books. The method of teaching reading was that put forth by Doman (1964). A more detailed description of this experiment can be found in the author's thesis, "Reading in Two Languages from Age Two: A Case Study," University of Texas at Austin, 1975.

100. Perlish, H.N. "An Investigation of the Effectiveness of a TV Reading Program Along with Parental Home Assistance in Helping Three Year Old Children Learn to Read," unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1968.

Perlish developed a "combination reading approach" designed to serve as an adjunct to parents in helping three year old children to read. The program was broadcast over a nine month period. 70 children watched The Wordland Workshop and 82 others served as a control group. The children in the experimental group obtained significantly higher scores on a posttest of reading performance and Perlish concluded that such a program, along with parental home assistance, may be effective in helping young children learn to read. However, the finding that there was no significant difference between the pretest and the posttest on reading achievement for either the experimental or control groups seems to vitiate this conclusion.

101. Pines, M. "How Three Year Olds Teach Themselves to Read and Love It," *Harpers Magazine*, May 1963, 58-64.

Author describes how preschool children receive reading instruction from O.K. Moore's "talking typewriter" and his Responsive Environments project. The article is generally very chatty and anecdotal, and the author is very positive about Moore's work.

102. Powers, D.E. *An Evaluation of the New Approach Method*, final report. Princeton, New Jersey: Educational Testing Service. Eric Document ED 120 264, 1973.

This study focused primarily on evaluating the most effective condition for conducting the New Approach Method of teaching preschoolers to read. (See Simms, 1976, and Simms and Simms, 1970 for a description of NAM.) Also investigated was the effectiveness per se of the program. The lessons were given to 246 children (aged just under three to six). Pretest data on achievement and attitude were collected on 177 children. Attrition for various reasons resulted in having posttests on only 70 subjects. Analysis revealed little variation in achievement and attitudes among the conditions under which the NAM lessons were conducted. Of the 92 children who attended the day care center, 42 were randomly assigned to NAM and 50 served as a control group in an attempt to assess the effectiveness of NAM. Pre- and posttest data were gathered but, at the end of the experiment, such data were available on only 27 NAM and 25 control children. Results on these children indicated superiority in letter identification, word recognition, word identification, various phonics measures, and sight vocabulary for the NAM group. Each group had a different teacher. Powers points out that there was little actual instruction in the day care center activities. No attitude changes were discernable in any of the analyses. Any conclusions as to the efficacy of the NAM must be viewed with extreme caution because of small sample sizes and the difficult experimental conditions which resulted in the loss of large numbers of subjects.

103. Rowan, H. ". . . 'Tis Time He Should Begin to Read," *Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly*, 9 (1961), 1-3.

In an editorial, Rowan outlines the philosophy and method of O.K. Moore's "responsive environment" talking typewriter project. Rowan suggests that this study merits attention and may eventually lead to the resolution of many problems encountered in the teaching of reading in schools.

104. Simms, G., and P. Simms. *The New Approach Method*. Trenton, New Jersey: NAM Child Development Center, Eric Document ED 106 810, 1970.

This publication is a guide for implementing the New Approach

Method, a program for teaching preschool children to read. The program itself is a series of 84 gamelike lessons which rely heavily on phonics. The idea of the program is that the child's learning partner (teacher, parent, etc.) tapes each of the lessons, which the child then works through on his/her own. Prereading skills such as color recognition, spatial relations, shapes, and cardinal and ordinal number concepts are covered in the first 36 lessons. The remaining lessons focus on reading skills: identification and printing of letters, consonant and vowel sounds, word families, and sight word recognition. See Powers (1973) for an evaluation of this program.

105. Smethurst, W. *Teaching Young Children to Read at Home*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.
Smethurst blends the scholarly and the chatty in his book intended "for parents who are considering teaching their children to read and who want to find out more about it" (p. 5). He devotes a chapter to discussing the history of teaching young children to read at home and one to reviewing American research conducted on early readers instructed outside schools. Smethurst's conclusions about preschool reading are that young children can be taught to read at home by parents and that such teaching is more likely to be helpful than harmful. He recommends that parents attempting to teach young children to read at home ensure that the teaching involves no pressure or pushing of any sort. He also maintains that the motivation for teaching one's child to read should be the interest shown by both parties, not the feeling that early reading will provide some later academic advantage. Smethurst outlines three general "paths" to early reading—the informal, the direct teaching/code emphasis, and the direct teaching/meaning emphasis—and presents a detailed, step-by-step description of his recommended program (a systematic direct teaching/code emphasis approach) for teaching children to read at home. A buyer's guide to materials for home instruction in reading and a reading test for parent teachers are also included in the book.

106. Söderbergh, R. *Reading in Early Childhood: A Linguistic Study of a Swedish Preschool Child's Gradual Acquisition of Reading Ability*. Stockholm: Almqvist and Wiksell, 1971.
This book details how, from September 1965 to December 1966, Söderbergh taught her daughter, aged 2.4, to read based on the premise that children can learn to read at the same age and in the same way they learn to speak. The method used was essentially that espoused by Doman (1964). Söderbergh found that in one

year and two months her daughter had "broken the code" of written language on her own. During the fourteen months of the experiment Söderbergh took detailed notes on her daughter's strategies for accomplishing this task, and the results are presented in this volume.

107. Spodek, B. "Early Reading and Preprimary Education," paper presented at AERA Conference, San Francisco, April 1979.
Spodek reviews three models of the reading process (data driven, conceptually driven, and interactive) and discusses the pedagogical practices which result from each of the models. He suggests that each early childhood educator select a model of reading instruction so as to be consistent with her/his beliefs about children, learning, development, schools, and the reading process. Using the interactive model as his guideline, Spodek suggests reading and reading-related experiences which he finds appropriate for prefirst grade children.

108. Steinberg, D.D., and M.T. Steinberg. "Reading before Speaking," *Visible Language*, 9 (1975), 197-224.
Authors report on teaching a young child (male) to read silently before reading aloud, thus working on the assumption that speech production is neither a necessary nor a desirable basis for teaching reading. The teaching program—consisting of 1) alphabet familiarization; 2) alphabet identification; 3) word, phrase, and sentence identification; and 4) text reading—was begun when the child (K) was 6 months of age and was terminated four years later. The program and results of its administration are outlined in detail. Testing conducted during the experiment showed that at age 3½ years, K read short sentences fluently and by age 8, his comprehension level was approximately grade six or seven and his speed and accuracy grade eleven. Steinberg and Steinberg conclude that "most current notions on reading readiness and on the role of speech production in teaching methodology require reconsideration" (p. 197).

109. Terman, L.M. "An Experiment in Infant Education," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 2 (1918), 219-228.
Terman introduces a case study written by the father of early reader "Martha." The father describes his method for teaching Martha to read. He taught her the capital letters first and then the small letters. The words in a picture book were taught and then the words were put on cards so games could be played with them and the letters. The father also created a primer for Martha using pictures, captions, and sentences. At 21 months Martha got the insight of the relationship between print and meaning and

gradually the pictures became less important to her than the print. At 23 months Martha began to "experience the mental pleasure of reading" (p. 225). She knew over 200 words by sight at 24 months and over 700 at 26 months. Throughout the article, both Terman and the father mainly seem to be interested in the extent to which environment influences mental growth ability.

See also entries numbered 1, 2, 9, 10, 12, 14, 15, 30, 43, 54, 55, 61, 62, 112, 120, 138.

Empirical Issues in Early Reading

Included in this category are empirical studies which seek to elucidate characteristics of the early readers themselves and/or characteristics of their environment.

110. Briggs, C., and D. Elkind. "Cognitive Development in Early Readers," *Developmental Psychology*, 9 (1973), 279-280.
The authors present a brief preliminary report of an ongoing longitudinal assessment of 16 matched pairs of five year old readers and nonreaders. The subjects were given a battery of perceptual, motor, cognitive, and personality tests. Analysis suggested that early readers were significantly superior to nonreaders only on Piagetian concrete operational tasks. Briggs and Elkind conclude that learning to read English is facilitated by possession of concrete operations. Other findings were that mothers of early readers had more education than mothers of nonreaders and that fathers of early readers read to their children more often than fathers of control children.

111. Briggs, C., and D. Elkind. "Characteristics of Early Readers," *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 44 (1977), 1231-1237.
Various tests of cognitive development, linguistic development, and personality were carried out on 33 white early readers and on 33 control children matched on sex, age, classroom, and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Tests score. Interviews with parents were also conducted. Results showed early readers superior to control children on the measures of conservation, auditory closure and sound blending of ITPA, and the similarities subtest of the Elkind Creativity Test. Data from interviews showed early readers came from high SES homes and that parents of early readers provided significantly more reading/writing materials and instructions on their use. Authors conclude that the presence of concrete operations on the child, coupled with a high parental achievement motivation, facilitates early reading.

112. Davidson, H.P. "An Experimental Study of Bright, Average, and Dull Children at the Four Year Mental Level," *Genetic Psychology Monographs*, 9 (1931), 119-289.

Davidson investigated 1) To what extent can children with a mental age of four learn to read and 2) Will bright, average, and dull children with an MA of 4 learn to read equally well under the same experimental conditions? Thirteen white American native English speakers aged 3.0 to 5.5 received 80 days of reading instruction (approximately 10 minutes per day). The instructional program was basically a whole word sentence method. No phonics were taught. Results indicated that at least some children with an MA of 4 can learn to read and that there was a great superiority of the bright group with the average group slightly superior to the dull. The large individual differences within each group were emphasized, however.

113. Durkin, D. "A Six Year Study of Children Who Learned to Read in School at the Age of Four," *Reading Research Quarterly*, 10 (1974-1975), 9-61.

Durkin reports on the achievement in reading from first through fourth grades of children who participated in a two year language arts curriculum designed for preschool children (described in Durkin, 1970). Achievement of a control group was compared with that of the experimental group. Results showed that experimental and control group mean raw scores on intelligence tests never differed significantly during grades one through four. For that same period mean raw scores on SRA Achievement Test, Grades One to Four and Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test, Grade Four were always higher for the experimental group. For grades one and two, the differences were statistically significant; in grades three and four, they were not. Durkin concludes that, although they were not formally assessed as being ready, subjects in both the control and experimental groups demonstrate that earlier starts in reading lead to satisfactory accomplishments rather than problems. She emphasizes throughout the article that the home environment which fosters early reading could well continue to support reading achievement but especially for children who learn to read in a school/kindergarten situation, "earlier starts in reading are meaningless if schools are unwilling to alter what is taught in the years that follow kindergarten" (p. 60).

114. Ellis, D.J.W. "The Cognitive Development of Early Readers," unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, 1975.

Ellis studied 20 early readers (children between 4 and 6 years old who had not attended school) for the purpose of describing their 1) cognitive development (with emphasis on accomplishment of eight Piagetian tasks), 2) oral reading abilities, and 3) home

background experiences. Findings showed that classification tasks correlated significantly with the subjects' instructional reading levels. The language and total Piagetian task scores correlated significantly with the subjects' independent reading levels. Word recognition scores were used to separate the early readers into advanced and beginning early readers. The advanced group performed significantly better on conservation tasks. The description of the children's oral reading was concerned largely with attempting to pinpoint the types of errors made and the sources used for identifying words. Data on the home backgrounds of the early readers showed that all 20 were middle class and had available a variety of reading materials. The children were described as being curious about words, having good memories, and playing well by themselves. All of them were read to at an early age. Mothers played the major role in helping these early readers, but fathers were also active in this capacity.

115. Forester, A.D. "What Teachers Can Learn from 'Natural Readers'," *Reading Teacher*, 31 (1977), 160-166.
Forester reviews the research of Durkin, Torrey, and others and cites her own classroom observations of early readers to note that, for natural readers, there is a parallel between learning to read and learning to speak. The following features of learning to read naturally are identified: 1) Learning to read is a process much like learning to speak; that is, reading is learned as expressive meaningful language (not a set of rules); and 2) learning to read proceeds on the basis of language patterns with which the child is familiar. The author characterizes the classroom where the author's observations took place as one which takes account of how natural readers learn to read.

116. Gardner, K. "Early Reading Skills," *Reading Skills: Theory and Practice*. London: Ward Lock Educational, 1970, 18-23.
Gardner reports the results of a pilot study of the "home regime" of early readers. The major trends of the results suggest that early readers come from homes where the language forms favored by education are used and where children have maximum contact with adult speech. Whether parents decided to teach children to read was not important. Parents of early readers regularly read to their children. On many occasions, the favorite story was used as a basis for investigating the written code.

117. Gates, A.I., and E. Boeker. "A Study of Initial Stages in Reading by Preschool Children," *Teachers College Record*, 24 (1923), 469-488.

The findings of this study of word learning with preschool children indicate: 1) length of word conditions difficulty of reading by inexperienced children; 2) names of objects judged to be of interest to children are not necessarily easier to learn; 3) words of irregular outline do not seem to be easier to learn than those which have letters of uniform height; 4) children frequently appear to learn words by observing some minute detail (dot over *i* or tail of *y*); 5) perceptual analysis (discovering distinctive features) of words is a main problem in beginning reading; 6) children improve rapidly in ability to learn words with practice, learning 175 percent as many words during the fifth day as on the first; and 7) children remember better words learned over periods of from 24 to 96 hours than many other studies of the time indicated.

118. Harty, K.R. "A Comparative Analysis of Children Who Enter Kindergarten Reading and Children of the Same Age Who Require Additional Readiness for Reading," unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Wisconsin, 1975.

From all the kindergarten students in one midwestern American city, 130 children who could read "four or five words in isolation and four words in a sentence were identified as 'readers' " (p. 38), 130 were randomly selected from a readiness group, and 130 were randomly selected from a nonreadiness group. The 390 children were tested for language development, self-concept, auditory discrimination, and reading achievement. A questionnaire was administered to each parent and teacher. Significant differences among reader, readiness, and nonreadiness children were determined in the following areas: 1) language development, 2) auditory discrimination, 3) socioeconomic level, 4) frequency of parent reading to child, 5) age when child started watching "Sesame Street," 6) whether child attended a preschool, 7) visits to the public library, and 8) teacher perceptions of children's reading abilities. Harty also found that 1) the largest number of readers learned to read at age four years, 2) most early readers had been helped to learn to read by their parents, and 3) most early readers learned the names and sounds of the alphabet before learning to read.

119. Hollingworth, L.S. *Children above 180 IQ*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book, 1942.

Hollingworth reviews the literature up to 1942 of studies of children over 180 IQ and presents 12 of her own case studies. Nine of the subjects were early readers with the median onset of reading being age three. Traits identified as being associated with early readers were: 1) they were content to be alone; 2) they

liked to have books read and reread to them, and they liked to read and reread books themselves; 3) they showed a general interest in words; and 4) they liked to write.

120. Ilg, F. "The Child from Three to Eight, with Implications for Reading," *Conference on Reading, University of Pittsburgh Report*, 19 (1963), 15-24.

Ilg relies heavily on the theories of Gesell and others who maintain that maturation is the key variable in determining instruction. Simply stated, this school of thought supports waiting until the child is ready; if the child is not ready, instruction should be delayed. In this article, Ilg cites factors in the child's development that correlate with reading and provides developmental profiles of children at the different age levels (from three to eight) on various reading tasks (reading-related visual characteristics, word recognition abilities, listening to stories). The teacher should watch for these behaviors in order to obtain an indication of what the mind is doing and thus be able to decide whether reading instruction is appropriate.

121. Kasdon, L.M. "Early Reading Background of Some Superior Readers among College Freshmen," *Journal of Educational Research*, 52 (1958), 151-153.

Subjects involved in this study were all at or above the 97.5 percentile on the reading comprehension section of the Cooperative English Test. The method for gathering data was structured interviews which attempted to ascertain the subjects' preschool and early reading experiences. Thus, the report seems to have relevance to this bibliography. This study has serious methodological flaws, however. Subjects gave more or less "off the top of the head" reports and did not consult parents, documents, etc. which could have provided information about the subjects' reading backgrounds. Since it seems questionable that research can arrive at any useful answers by asking nineteen year olds how they learned to read, the results are not included here. This study does, however, provide some type of evidence that preschoolers can learn to read.

122. King, E.M., and D.T. Friesen. "Children Who Read in Kindergarten," *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 18 (1972), 147-161.

Thirty-one early readers were identified from Calgary, Canada's population of kindergarten children. Also, 31 non-early readers were randomly selected as a control group. Early readers and non-early readers were compared on the variables of family background, preschool experience, and various perceptual and

language-reading factors. Significant differences in early readers' family backgrounds were: 1) mothers had greater educational attainment, 2) the socioeconomic index was higher, and 3) families were smaller. Early readers scored significantly higher on measured intelligence. Follow up on both groups was conducted after one year of reading instruction. At that time, the groups differed significantly in oral word reading, reading vocabulary, and comprehension.

123. Krippner, S. "The Boy Who Read at Eighteen Months," *Exceptional Children*, 30 (1963), 105-109.
Krippner reports a case study of an early reader, detailing the child's intellectual, socioemotional, and linguistic status as well as his early experiences. He points out that the subject failed a reading readiness test but read at a grade two or three level. The child's reading ability is attributed to 1) superior general intelligence, 2) superior visual memory, 3) superior listening vocabulary, 4) superior social maturity, 5) superior speech and hearing development (articulation and auditory discrimination), 6) superior range of interests, and 7) superior home background (extensive cultural experience, parents who served as reading models).

124. Morrison, C., A.J. Harris, and I.T. Averbach. "The Reading Performance of Disadvantaged Early and Non-Early Readers from Grades One through Three," *Journal of Educational Research*, 65 (1971), 23-26.
The authors identified 58 black children entering first grade in New York public schools who had some word recognition ability (five percent of the total population) and compared them with non-early readers, both matched and unmatched, in order to determine the advantages or disadvantages of early reading ability among disadvantaged black children. Posttest comparisons were made at the end of each of the first three grades. At the end of grade one, early readers scored significantly higher than the total group on all reading subtests of the Stanford Primary Achievement Tests. The early readers were significantly superior to the total group at the end of grade one (word knowledge, word discrimination, and reading) and moved even further ahead by the end of grade three. The consistent superiority of the early readers was found to be independent of the method of reading instruction. The authors conclude that reading skills learned prior to grade one are not detrimental to long range reading achievement of disadvantaged black children.

125. Plessas, G.P., and C.R. Oakes. "Prereading Experiences of Selected Early Readers," *Reading Teacher*, 17 (1964), 241-245.

The purpose of this study was to explore the experiences relating to reading development of 20 early readers. The authors hoped to identify the nature of prereading activities that might be associated with early success in reading. A questionnaire was given to parents of the early readers. Major findings indicated that 1) the average intelligence of this group of early readers was superior (the range of IQs was not given), 2) the early readers demonstrated an early personal interest in reading and writing, and 3) the parents maintained that most of these children were taught to read at home. The main environmental factors in early readers' backgrounds were the many activities related to reading which were available and conducted in the home, and the fact that 19 of the 20 children were read to regularly by parents.

126. Silberberg, N.E., and M.C. Silberberg. "Hyperlexia: Special Word Recognition Skills in Young Children," *Exceptional Children*, 34 (1967), 41-42.

The authors describe cases of hyperlexia where word recognition skills are far in advance of and seemingly not tied to general verbal functioning. They mention that some of these children develop their word recognition skills at preschool age and suggest that, since there is little known about this phenomenon, the area needs research.

127. Sipay, E.R. "The Effect of Prenatal Instruction on Reading Achievement," *Elementary English*, 42 (1965), 431-432.

Sipay describes a twelve year longitudinal experiment with 112 women, in their fourth month of pregnancy, divided into three matched groups. One group gave their unborn children basal reader instruction; one, phonics instruction only; and one, repeated nonsense syllables. Lessons were placed on tapes and transmitted to the unborn by a specially designed fetoscope. After the children were six years old and in first grade, they were given standardized reading tests each year from grades one through six. The children who had prenatal instruction in reading did significantly better on the tests than those who did not. The author's conclusion: "Nimium celeriter ne credas omnia quae legas." (Translation: Don't be too quick to believe everything you read.) Moral: Perhaps we had better cast a critical eye at research in early reading (or any aspect of reading) and attempt to find out just what is substantiated by *careful*, theoretically sound investigations into the topic.

128. Sutton, M.H. "Readiness for Reading at the Kindergarten Level," *Reading Teacher*, 17 (1964), 234-240.

A screening of 134 kindergarten children on visual and auditory perception abilities indicated that, on those dimensions, 132 of them were ready to read. Therefore, the author implemented informal reading instruction in the kindergarten whereby if children sought it, they received 10-15 minutes of reading instruction per day. During the school year, 46 of the children actually began reading. The following data were collected on the 46 early readers:

1. *Socioeconomic status*. The only pattern to develop was the lack of a pattern, i.e., there was a wide range of SES in their backgrounds.
2. *Family background*. This, also, was characterized by variety. There was, however, a tendency for more early readers to ask questions about words, and slightly more reading children had adults reading to them regularly.
3. *Readers' characteristics*. The readers were classed by parents as being more conscientious and more able to concentrate.

129. Sutton, M.H. "First Grade Children Who Learned to Read in Kindergarten," *Reading Teacher*, 19 (1965), 192-196.

A follow up on Sutton, 1964. The author addresses the question, "Do the differences found in the kindergarten year persist in grade one?" Of the 46 kindergarten readers, 25 were put in a high level homogeneous group in grade one and 21 were put in various heterogeneous groups. Those readers in the high level homogeneous group made good gains in semester one; those in heterogeneous groups did not. In semester two the gains were about the same. Thus, at the end of the year, the reading achievement of kindergarten readers in the high level homogeneous group was significantly higher. Sutton makes no such statement, but these findings seem to presage Durkin's conclusion (1974) that if the schools do not adjust and provide appropriate instruction for early readers, the readers' gains will not be maintained.

130. Sutton, M.L. "Children Who Learned to Read in Kindergarten: A Longitudinal Study," *Reading Teacher*, 22 (1969), 595-602, 683.

This article also follows up the 46 kindergarten readers of the author's 1964 study. Sutton reviews the results of the kindergarten and first grade achievement of the children presented in Sutton, 1964 and 1965, and reports on their progress in grades two and three. The 46 early readers maintained "a continuing and increasing advantage" over their fellow students throughout

the first three grades, but Sutton does not say whether these advantages were statistically significant. She also reports parents' reactions to the early reading program and gives brief summaries of some of the early readers' learning patterns.

131. Terman, L.M. *Genetic Studies of Genius*. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, Volume I, 1925; Volume II, 1926. *Volume I:* Terman identifies 643 subjects who were "well within the top 1 percent of the school population" (p. 19). The primary criterion for selection in the study was intelligence but Terman also considered school achievement, age/grade status, and teachers' ratings. He provides information on virtually every characteristic of the subjects which could give insight into their genius (e.g. history, social origin, family background, testing results). In one brief section on early reading, Terman reports that 44 percent of the boys surveyed and 46.4 percent of the girls learned to read before starting school. Parental responses to the question of how these children learned to read revealed that "in the large majority of cases only incidental or casual assistance is reported" (p. 272). In 17 cases, the child "taught himself" without the knowledge of any member of the family. Many cases were cited in which parental help with reading was given "in response to urgent solitiations on the part of the child" (p. 272). *Volume II*: Terman examines 301 eminent men and women in history in an attempt to determine the degree of mental endowment which characterizes individuals of genius in childhood and youth. The method of the study is historiometry in which historical records and events from the subjects' childhood and youth are studied. Terman focuses on IQ to a great degree. Individual case studies of the 301 subjects are presented, however, and it is within these that some instances of early reading are discussed.

132. Torrey, J.W. "Learning to Read without a Teacher: A Case Study," *Elementary English*, 46 (1969), 550-556, 658.
This article is a case study of John, a disadvantaged five year old black American child from the urban South who was an early reader. Torrey presents data on John's personal and reading history, his family background, and his results from standardized reading and intelligence tests. She also includes an anecdotal description of John's actual reading behavior in various situations. Torrey's major conclusions from the study are: 1) John appears to have learned to read by having "asked just the right questions in his own mind about the relations between language and print and thus to have bridged the gap between his own language and the printed form" (p. 556). There was no

conscious effort on anyone's part to teach John. 2) Neither high verbal ability nor cultural advantage is necessary to learn to read early. 3) The key to learning is discovering how meaning, not sounds, are represented in print. "John's phonic knowledge and his attack skills were strictly subordinate to the task of reading what it said" (p. 556).

133. Witty, P., and R. Blumenthal. "The Language Development of an Exceptionally Gifted Pupil," *Elementary English*, 34 (1957), 214-217.

The authors report on the family background, physical status, intelligence, personality, and achievement of a four year old boy whose reading vocabulary and comprehension were equal to that of a typical fourth or fifth grader. They found that his achievement in reading was "extraordinary." The child read books, magazines, and basal readers designed for fifth and sixth grades. He could also read Hebrew. Witty and Blumenthal feel the ability cannot be accounted for solely in terms of good environment and say, "One is at a loss to explain its origin." (p. 217).

134. Witty, P., and A. Coomer. "A Case Study of Gifted Twin Boys," *Exceptional Children*, 22 (1955), 104-108, 124-125.

The authors detail results from a number of intelligence and reading tests on the twin boys. They also examined the family background of the twin's parents and the physical development of the twins themselves. Both twins learned to read at the age of three "simply by asking questions and having their questions answered by their parents" (p. 107). Information about school experiences, home interests, and social adjustment of the twins is also included.

135. Ylisto, I.P. "An Empirical Investigation of Early Reading Responses of Young Children," unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Michigan, 1967.

Ylisto proposes that in learning to read young children go through six sequential steps, from passive awareness to independent word recognition. An inventory was constructed of 25 word symbols, such as road signs and cereal packet labels. Each item was arranged in a series of the six steps: 1) photograph of the symbol in its natural setting, 2) drawing of the symbol in in its natural setting, 3) drawing of the symbol in its immediate setting, 4) symbol in isolation, 5) symbol in sentence context, and 6) symbol in story context. The inventory was administered to 82 four year olds, 76 five year olds, and 71 six year olds who had not received formal reading instruction. Results show that 17

children recognized all the symbols through the six steps, 109 recognized some symbols through various steps, and 103 did not recognize any symbols. Each individual's response to each item and the pattern of response for the total population demonstrated a progressive dispersion over the six-step sequence. Thus, Ylisto concludes that the reading process occurs in a step-by-step process involving the child's interaction with the environment.

See also entries numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 35, 41, 60, 70, 75, 77, 84, 102, 106, 108, 109.

Reviews of Early Reading

136. Lesiak, J. "Reading in Kindergarten: What the Research Doesn't Tell Us," *Reading Teacher*, 32 (1978), 135-138.
Lesiak maintains a review shows that research in early reading demonstrated that kindergarten children can and do learn to read but does not indicate which method and materials are best, how long instruction should be conducted, how achievement should be measured, if an early start in reading is beneficial in later grades, what the social and emotional effects of early reading instruction are, and which children benefit most from early instruction. She recommends more studies focusing on these questions and, in the meantime, kindergarten reading instruction based on "a real consideration of individual differences" (p. 137).

137. Mason, G.E., and N.J. Prater. "Early Reading and Instruction," *Elementary English*, 43 (1966), 483-488, 527.
The authors summarize the literature on early reading from the 1920s to the mid-1960s. The discussion is organized under 1) early reading without deliberate training, 2) early reading learned with deliberate training, 3) children who entered school prior to age six compared with their older grademates, and 4) reading readiness training. Mason and Prater conclude that the question of when to begin teaching reading is unresolved but depends upon several variables such as the child's interest, instructional materials, class size, and teacher expectancies. They also hint that readiness and beginning reading are not distinct phases but form a continuum in the development of learning to read. The article tends to be more of a compilation than a critical review.

138. Teale, W.H. "Positive Environments for Learning to Read: What Studies of Early Readers Tell Us," *Language Arts*, 55 (1978), 922-932.
The author reviews the literature on early reading in order to arrive at conclusions as to what constitutes positive environments for learning to read, both in the home and at school. He identifies the following four factors as being repeatedly as-

sociated with the environments of early readers: 1) availability and range of printed materials, 2) reading "done" in the environment, 3) contact with paper and pencil, and 4) response by individual(s) in the environment to what the child is trying to do. Each factor is discussed in some detail. Also provided is a general description of a positive environment for learning to read.

See also entries numbered 38, 62, 72, 105.

Bibliographies of Early Reading

139. Durkin, D. *Reading and the Kindergarten*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969.
Durkin annotates articles which express various points of view and/or contain research findings related to the issue of teaching reading in kindergarten.

140. Higgins, W.L. "A Working Bibliography for Research Relating to Early Reading," *Georgetown University Papers on Languages and Linguistics*, Number 13, 1976, 74-103.
This unannotated bibliography might be said to be more on the topic of beginning reading than on early reading (as defined for purposes of this annotated bibliography).

141. Teale, W.H. "Early Reading: A Comprehensive Annotated Bibliography," Centre for the Study of Curriculum and Teacher Education Occasional Paper, No. 2. Bundoora, Victoria: La Trobe University, 1979. Eric Document ED 166 683.
Teale defines early reading as reading prior to the time a child begins the formal institution of school. He provides, in alphabetical order, detailed annotations of approximately 150 articles on this topic.

142. Teale, W.H., and L.E. Jeffries. *Early Reading: A Selected Annotated Bibliography*. Mimeo, La Trobe University, 1979.
The authors select what they feel to be the soundest and/or the most influential work in the field of early (preschool) reading and annotate the references under the following topics: 1) Comprehensive Studies, 2) Theoretical and Pedagogical Issues, 3) Empirical Issues, 4) Reviews, and 5) Bibliographies.

See also entries numbered 62, 105.